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ABSTRACT

This is a report of the Japan/United States Textbook Study Project the goal of which is to improve each nation's textbooks, especially in regard to the treatment of Japan in U.S. textbooks, the treatment of the United States in Japanese textbooks, and the treatment of relations between the two countries in each nation's textbooks. Panelists from both countries reviewed selected, widely used history, geography, and other social studies textbooks in lower and upper secondary school social studies courses in Japan and junior high school and high school courses in the United States. General findings are that: (1) the treatment of Japan and of the United States in each other's textbooks is generally accurate, but certain descriptions, which are based on stereotypes and inaccuracies, still appear in both nations' textbooks; (2) the Japanese textbooks generally present more complex vocabulary and substance than the U.S. textbooks; (3) neither the Japanese nor the U.S. textbooks adequately indicate sources (including dates) used in writing the textbooks; (4) the Pacific War, especially the background and issues leading up to it, is not dealt with adequately in either the Japanese or the U.S. textbooks; (5) there is an over-emphasis in the textbooks in both countries on certain traits, e.g., in the U.S. textbooks, the Japanese are frequently characterized as adaptive and energetic, and in the Japanese textbooks, United States citizens are frequently individualistic and materialistic. A list of recommendations is included. In the preparation of textbooks, both countries should pay more attention to scholarship. Controversial issues and personalities should not be glossed over or muted in efforts to present a single version of the past. Cultural and artistic developments in both nations should be treated more fully. (Author/RM)

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JAPAN/UNITED STATES TEXTBOOK STUDY PROJECT

JOINT REPORT

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Background and Purpose

The Japan/United States Textbook Study Project is a cooperative research effort sponsored by the Japan Textbook Research Center and the International Society for Educational Information in Tokyo and the National Council for the Social Studies in Washington, D. C. Improvements in the quality of the textbooks of both nations is the overall purpose of this joint project. The immediate goal of the study is to seek improvements in the treatment each country gives the other and the relationships between the two countries in their respective textbooks. It is anticipated that related additional topics for further discussion and research will result from the present study.

The project involves the review of selected, widely-used history, geography and other social studies textbooks in lower and upper secondary school social studies courses in Japan and junior high school and high school courses in the United States.[1]

Representatives of the sponsoring agencies met in Washington in August, 1979 and in Tokyo in October, 1979 to determine the scope, organization and schedule of the study, and to establish guidelines for the examination of the content of the textbooks to be reviewed.

Using the guidelines developed by representatives of the groups sponsoring the project, a panel of reviewers in each country recorded their impressions of the textbooks selected for review.[2] These reviews

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[1] A list of the books appears in Appendix A.

[2] Appendix B includes the names of each nation's panel of reviewers and Advisory Committee members. Appendix C provides a list of the guidelines used in the study.

were the subject of discussions at a joint meeting held in Tokyo in July, 1980. In October, 1980 at a joint meeting in Wingspread-Racine, Wisconsin, a draft of a final report was reviewed and an outline for a joint report prepared. This report, one result of the project, provides background information, a list of findings, and a series of recommendations for improving each nation's textbooks, especially in regard to the treatment of Japan in U.S. textbooks, the treatment of the U.S. in Japan textbooks, and the treatment of relations between the two countries in each nation's textbooks.

Social Studies in Japan and in the United States

Courses in history, geography, and the social studies in Japan and in the United States serve similar purposes; that is, they are expected to provide knowledge about the world and to influence the attitudes of children and youth toward their own country and toward other nations.

Social studies courses are among the most widely offered courses in the elementary and secondary schools both in the United States and in Japan. Tables 1, 2, and 3 on pages 3, 4, and 5 indicate the grade levels, compulsory subjects, and standard annual school hours of each curriculum area in elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary in Japan.* In Japan, social studies is one of the required subjects taught from grades 1 through 12.

In the United States, social studies courses are not only among the most frequently offered courses but also among the most frequently required. For example, American history is required in 39 states plus the District of

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*These tables are taken from Outline of Education in Japan, Science and International Affairs Bureau, Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, Japan, 1979.

Table 1 Standard Annual School Hours in Elementary School

Classification		1st grade	2nd grade	3rd grade	4th grade	5th grade	6th grade
School hours for each subject area	National language	238 (272)	315 (280)	280 (280)	280 (280)	245 (210)	245 (210)
	Social studies	68 (68)	70 (70)	105 (105)	140 (105)	140 (105)	140 (105)
	Calculation	102 (136)	140 (175)	175 (175)	210 (175)	210 (175)	210 (175)
	Science	68 (68)	70 (70)	105 (105)	105 (105)	140 (105)	140 (105)
	Music	102 (68)	70 (70)	70 (70)	70 (70)	70 (70)	70 (70)
	Drawing & handicraft	102 (68)	70 (70)	70 (70)	70 (70)	70 (70)	70 (70)
	Homemaking	—	—	—	—	70 (70)	70 (70)
	Physical education	102 (102)	105 (105)	105 (105)	105 (105)	105 (105)	105 (105)
School hours for morals		34 (34)	35 (35)	35 (35)	35 (35)	35 (35)	35 (35)
School hours for special activities		34 (34)	35 (35)	35 (35)	70 (70)	70 (70)	70 (70)
Total school hours		850 (850)	910 (910)	980 (980)	1,085 (1,015)	1,155 (1,015)	1,155 (1,015)

(Notes)

1. Figures without brackets are the current school hours, and those in brackets are the school hours in and after 1980 school year.

2. One unit school hour in this table is set at 45 minutes.

Table 2 Standard Annual School Hours in Lower Secondary School

Classification	School hours for compulsory subject area								School hours for morals	School hours for special activities	School hours for elective subject area	Total school hours
	National language	Social studies	Mathematics	Science	Music	Fine arts	Health & physical education	Industrial art & homemaking				
1st grade	175 (175)	140 (140)	140 (105)	140 (105)	70 (70)	70 (70)	125 (105)	105 (70)	35 (35)	50 (70)	140 (105)	1,190 (1,050)
2nd grade	175 (140)	140 (140)	140 (140)	140 (105)	70 (70)	70 (70)	125 (105)	105 (70)	35 (35)	50 (70)	140 (105)	1,190 (1,050)
3rd grade	175 (140)	175 (105)	140 (140)	140 (140)	35 (35)	35 (35)	125 (105)	105 (105)	35 (35)	50 (70)	140 (140)	1,155 (1,050)

(Notes)

1. The figures without brackets are the current school hours, and those in brackets are the school hours in and after 1981 school year.

Table 3 Compulsory Subjects in Upper Secondary School

Subject Area	Beginning 1982 School Year	Current
Japanese Language	Japanese Language I (4)	Modern Japanese (7) Classics I - A (2)
Social Studies	Modern Society (4)	Ethics & Sociology (2) Political Science & Economics (2) and 2 subjects from Japanese History (3), World History (3) Geography A (3), Geography B (3)
Mathematics	Mathematics I (4)	General Mathematics (6) or Mathematics I (6)
Science	Science ((4)	Basic Science (6) or 2 subjects from Physics I (3), Chemistry I (3), Biology I (3), Earth Science (3)
Health & Physical Education	Physical Education (7~9) (male students in full time course have to acquire 11 credits) Health (2)	Same as left
Arts	One subject from Music I (2), Fine Arts I (2), Handicraft I (2), Calligraphy I (2) (full time course students have to acquire 3 credits.)	Same as left
Home Economics	General Home Economics (4) (Only for female students)	Same as left

(Notes)

1. Current compulsory subjects (12 for male students and 13 for female students) and credits (47) will be amended to 7 subjects (8 for female students) and 32 credits from 1982.

2. One credit is equivalent to 35 annual unit hours as a rule, with one hour set at 50 minutes.

Columbia; world history is required in more than 12 states. State history is required in 34 states; civics, consumer education and the "free enterprise" system are among other requirements in at least five states. In 68% of the states four to six semesters of social studies are required for graduation.*

Within each country, the strong similarity of social studies courses and topics taught at various grades from elementary through upper secondary or high school suggests virtually a national curriculum. However, the conditions influencing this remarkable similarity of course offerings within each nation are quite different.

In Japan the types of subject areas taught and the standard annual school hours of each subject area are defined by the Ministry of Education.** Within these frameworks the basic criteria concerning the objectives and teaching contents of each subject area are specified in the Courses of Study. Courses of study are compiled for each level of these schools on the basis of recommendations by the Curriculum Council, an advisory body of the Ministry of Education.

Each school organizes the appropriate curricula in compliance with the provisions of the relevant statutes and courses of study. Variations within the courses offered reflect the consideration local school authorities have given to the conditions of the region of the country wherein the school is located and its students' abilities, aptitudes and likely future.

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*Wright, J. Zeb, "The Status of Precollege Social Studies Educational Practices in U.S. Schools," in What Are the Needs in Precollege Science, Mathematics, and Social Science Education? Views From the Field, NSF, SE80-9.

**Although in Japan the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture -- the "Monbusho"-- has jurisdiction over education, in this report this government agency is referred to simply as the Ministry of Education.

The important role of the college entrance examinations in influencing what is taught in Japanese schools should not be overlooked. The contents and the methods used in the classrooms in Japan are influenced by the fact that "doing well" on these examinations is considered necessary in order to enter the most prestigious schools or to be invited to join the largest, best-known businesses. As a consequence, the entrance examinations have a homogenizing effect on school textbooks.

In the United States, no national curriculum mandates are prescribed by federal educational agencies. In many states requirements for specific courses or topics exist, but even here, prescriptions for objectives and specific content are rarely found. Commercial nationally-marketed textbooks have a homogenizing effect on the content of social studies courses. However, it must be noted that there are many choices of textbooks and other materials available. While a review of course titles alone may give the impression of a virtual national curriculum, a closer look at the content of these courses and the textbooks involved reveals that substance and methods can and do vary substantially from one school district to another as well as from school to school, and even from one teacher to another.

Social Studies in Japan

There are no fundamental differences between the U.S. and Japan in the general purpose of social studies or in the importance of textbooks in education. Yet the recent trends of social studies in the two countries show a remarkable difference.

In Japan the social studies were introduced in 1947 through educational innovation. They are considered an "integrated general education course" in which students learn about life and culture in the natural environment and historical background. They included the conventional courses of ethics, geography, history and civics.

This postwar course initially followed the social studies model in existence in the USA. Over time, however, Japan adapted the American model to fit its own needs. While in the U.S. it seemed that social studies education, even at the secondary level, was part of a general and integrated course in which the life and cultural tradition of people are given most importance, this was not the case in Japan.

In Japan, the revision of "Course of Study" in 1951 split the general social studies in upper secondary school (10-12 grades) into three subject areas: "cultural geography," "history," and "current social issues." The original nature of the general social studies remained unchanged for the primary and lower secondary schools. Further revisions after 1958 eroded the unified nature of general social studies in lower secondary levels. While keeping the common name of "social studies," the course was in practice broken down into three parts: "geography," "history," and "civics," each of which was to be taught from the first to third school years (7-9 grades).

The course of social studies education in these thirty years can be divided into four periods based on the main revisions of "Course of Study."

(1) from the initiation in 1947 up to about 1955 (through revision in 1951)

(2) after revision in 1955 (through that of 1958)

(3) after revisions in 1968 and 1970

(4) after revisions in 1977 and 1978

There is a two- to three-year transition period from revision to full implementation. It is during this period that new textbooks are prepared. The latest revisions will be fully implemented in 1981 for lower secondary schools and in 1982 for upper secondary schools.

The First Period (1947 to about 1955) -- Initiation in 1947, Revision in 1951

Immediately after World War II, even before the educational innovation in 1947, the Ministry of Education had established the "Committee for the Innovation of Civic Education." The Committee recommended that: "the course of civic virtue should be established in place of the old ethical education; the course should be founded upon daily life, put importance on the interest and concern of students, promote their rational thinking; and should be an integrated course on politics, economics and society." This report, when combined with the later U.S. suggestion, resulted in the establishment of the social studies as a formal course in Japanese schools.

In 1946, the Ministry of Education began investigation of the social studies at the request of the Civil Information and Education Section (CIE), Supreme Commander of Allied Forces and organized a "Preparatory Committee for the Social Studies." This committee under the guidance of CIE developed a course of study based on the Virginia Plan for primary schools and the Missouri Plan for secondary and lower secondary schools. "Social Studies I, the Education Guidance Procedures" (grades 1-6) was published in May, 1947 and "Social Studies II" (grades 7-10) in July of that year.

According to these guidelines, the social studies curriculum was assigned the task of forming a modern democratic society. The basic aims of the social studies program were better understanding of Japanese society and the strengthening of civic virtues.

The education guidance procedures for social studies were first revised in 1951. Although not a significant change, it did advocate a study centered on life experiences and problem-solving.

The Second Period (1955 to 1968) -- Revisions in 1955 and 1958

The above mentioned new social studies program became the target of much criticism. Charges included: deterioration of basic learning; neglect of systematic study and social scientific thinking in the teaching of geography (descriptive geography) and history (chronology); excessive emphasis on experiential learning. The reason for the charges was due in part to the insufficient experience and lack of knowledge on the part of social studies teachers.

Classroom teachers and historians were among those who criticized the social studies program for its lack of historical and social concerns. They called for more concentration on systematic learning rather than on experience. In addition, classroom teachers, based upon their classroom experiences, attacked the instructional activities associated with social studies. In response to this criticism, at the secondary level, a new course, "Nation's History," (later revised to "Japanese History") was introduced for the second and third school years (grades 8 and 9) along with "General Social Studies."

In response to these criticisms and also reflecting the socio-political situation of those days, the revision of the social studies program became an educational policy issue. In late 1952, the Ministry of Education, asked the Council on Educational Courses for "improvement of the social studies, particularly moral, geography and history education." The Council responded in haste to this inquiry, and the revised course of study was promulgated in 1955. The major policy change of this new plan was the emphasis on moral, geography and history education. Both the contents and method of teaching were revised.

At the lower secondary level, content was specified for 1) geography, 2) history, and 3) political, economic and social life; also, a new course area designed to promote the reflection and self-recognition of moral life was introduced.

By the revision in 1958, a new, separate "course on moral guidance" was established in the primary and lower secondary schools. This decision shifted the emphasis on moral guidance from the social studies to the new course, thus strengthening the original characteristics of social studies. In addition, all content specifications were carefully examined and revised in an effort to establish consistency from primary through secondary schools and to strengthen geography and history education. Grade assignments for the secondary schools provided that geography as a rule be taught in the first grade, the historical field in the second grade, and the political, economic and social field in the third grade.

Revision of social studies in primary and secondary schools in 1955 and 1958 produced major changes. There was an intensive effort to adapt the social studies to the Japanese social climate by strengthening systematic learning as contrasted with the emphasis on experience and problem-solving -- an influence attributed largely to efforts to adopt the U.S. educational practice.

In senior school social studies, the "general society" and "current issues" courses were subsumed under a course entitled "Society" by the 1956 revisions. Under the 1960 revision, this course was divided into two courses entitled, Ethics-Sociology and Politics-Economy. Similarly, Cultural Geography was divided into Geography A* and Geography B.** Most schools had five mandated courses; the Ethics-Sociology course formed the basis of moral education in the senior schools.

During the second period of revision, U.S. influence on Japanese educational practice was again evident. Jerome S. Bruner's book, The Process of Education, reporting on an important meeting of scholars and educators in 1959, was translated into Japanese in 1963, and heralded the shift from experience-based to scientific education in Japan.

The Third Period (1968 to 1977) -- Revision in 1968 and 1970

The Japanese economy grew rapidly in the 1960's. The educational implications of the rapid growth of industry and the economy were analyzed

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*Systematic geography; three unit hours.

**Detailed systematic geography; four unit hours.

carefully. It was felt that the development of an information society requires special skills and ability on the part of individuals so that they can handle this increased volume of knowledge. Provisions for increasing internationalization were also considered important. Japan, having the world's second highest gross national product, recognized the inter-relationship between the national economy and international politics. The 1968-70 revision of "Course of Study" incorporated the above concerns.

Major revisions at the lower secondary level were: 1) content of all three areas -- geography, history, and political, economic and social life -- was refined, 2) politics, economics and social areas were incorporated into Civic Virtues, 3) the former arrangement of geography in the first grade, history in the second grade, and the politics-economy society in the third grade was changed to geography in the first-second grades, history in the first-third grades and civics in the third grade.

In the senior schools, World History A and World History B were merged into World History, and the Geography B content was revised to descriptive world geography. Two courses selected from Japanese History, World History and Geography A (systematic geography) or Geography B were mandated along with "ethics-sociology" and "politics-economy."

The Fourth Period (1977-78)

The 1968-70 revision, designed to refine the entire content of primary and secondary schools, was deemed unsatisfactory. Criticism from every part of the country charged that students were over-burdened. This charge applied to not only the social studies but all courses. Many strongly suggested that

courses be carefully designed to cultivate the nation's creative power to foster students' ability to think and judge. In response, the educational guidance procedures were revised to include: 1) school life with leisure, 2) rich humanity, 3) selection of content as required for the nation and for the individual character and ability of students. This revised procedure is being implemented in primary schools in 1980; it will be applied to lower secondary schools in 1981 and senior schools in 1982.

Significant reduction was made in teaching hours. The former 19-hour time assignment in primary schools was reduced to 16 hours per week. In secondary schools the former social studies time assignment per week of 4 hours for geography, 5 hours for history and 4 hours for civic virtues totaling 13 hours was modified to 4-4-3, totaling 11 hours. In addition to the reduction of teaching hours, content was refined.

The most thorough revision of social studies was made in the upper level schools. Indeed, student needs in the senior schools were the motivating force behind the revision of the Course of Study of 1977-78. The senior schools attendance rate exceeds 90% and student abilities vary widely. The senior schools could not cope with these conditions under the old courses. Therefore, under this revision, courses were mandated at the first grade and an elective system employed for the second and third grades. "Contemporary Society" was a newly established compulsory course. It included the ethical concerns of human life and the politics and economy of the present society. In addition, it fostered understanding of society through content on people and environments, contemporary society, science and technology, as well as Japanese culture and tradition.

The five courses designed as electives were Japanese History, World History, Geography, Ethics, and Politics-Economy. No restriction was placed on the maximum number of courses a student has to complete, although each student will finish from one to three courses.

The 1977-78 revisions appear to take advantage of 30 years of experience in the social studies in Japan. For example, observation and experiential learning and their relation to other courses are stressed in the primary school low grades; elective systems are utilized to a large extent in the senior schools. However, whether Contemporary Society in the senior schools will be taught the same way as General Society depends solely on the efforts of individual teachers and the success of in-service programs in the training of teachers. The latest revisions are based on the belief that social studies in the lower grades in primary school should emphasize an understanding of things basic to the nation, instead of returning to "crawling social studies."* It is expected that the "lessened" school life will be an "enriched" one.

To summarize the most recent changes, the new curriculum has been designed to respond to criticisms that course work was too difficult and too complex. The revision reduces the number of classroom hours by 10 percent. The objectives, structure and content have not been substantially changed. However, the following represent some of the changes that have been made.

-- The content of world geography has been moved from the sixth to the seventh grade.

-- Ninth grade civics now includes a new subject, contemporary society, which has been part of the tenth grade course. The study of contemporary society integrates ethics, politics and economics and

*A trend toward expanding the range of topics and issues dealt with in these courses.

is concerned with recurring social problems. Subjects such as world history, Japanese history, geography, ethics and politics-economy have become electives at the eleventh and twelfth grade levels.

The following chart provides an outline of the social studies curriculum at the lower secondary level as contrasted with the revised curriculum.

Present Curriculum	Revised Curriculum
7th grade (geography and history) 140 hours (4 hours/week)	7th grade (world geography and history) 105 hours
8th grade (geography and history) 140 hours (4 hours/week)	8th grade (world history and geography) 105 hours
9th grade (civics) 175 hours (4 hours/week)	9th grade (civics: includes contemporary society) 140 hours

-- The introduction of contemporary society reflects a belief that interdisciplinary approaches are desirable in understanding social reality.

-- Given Japan's important place in international affairs the need for international education is recognized.

Social Studies Education in the United States

Brief Background

In the United States there have been, over the years, many shifts in the emphases of teaching history, the social sciences, and the social studies. Before 1860 the study of history emphasized training in morals, the use of leisure time, citizenship, and was seen as serving as an inspiration for patriotism and as a means of strengthening and disciplining the mind. From

1860 to 1890 the disciplinary and moral values continued to receive great emphasis. Patriotism and citizenship also continued to receive some attention.

The period of 1890 to 1920 saw the formation of a series of national educational committees. The study of history as a discipline continued to receive emphasis. The influential report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association reinforced this view, citing history "... as a powerful tool through which ... the pupil's imagination is at once quickened, strengthened, and disciplined."

A new emphasis upon training for citizenship and education for life was apparent in the early decades of the Twentieth Century. The National Education Association's Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in its report stressed such educational objectives as worthy use of leisure, citizenship and ethical character.

The Commission's Committee for the Social Studies sought to broaden the content of the curriculum to include more of the social sciences, geography and civics, along with European and American history. A new course in Problems of American Democracy was introduced to senior high schools.

Character education and values became an area of concern during the 1930's. A systematic attempt to treat the objectives of social studies teaching, the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, notes "Our fundamental purpose here is the creation of rich, many-sided personalities, equipped with practical knowledge and inspired by ideals so that they can make their way and fulfill their mission in a changing society which is part of a world complex." Charles Beard who played a major role in the Commission's work wrote, "Social science cannot ignore ethical

considerations; otherwise it would become a branch of inert scholasticism without direction or motive force. Insofar as social science is truly scientific it is neutral; as taught in the schools it is and must be ethical; it must make choices and emphasize values with reference to commanding standards."

In 1938 a reformulation of the general purposes of education by the Educational Policies Commission identified education for a democratic way of life as the overall purpose of American schools. This goal was to be achieved by implementing the broad objectives of (1) self-realization, (2) human relationship, (3) economic efficiency, and (4) civic responsibility. During the 1940's and '50's this statement of goals was often used by social studies curriculum committees as a general statement of purpose.

The 1960's saw numerous national, state and local efforts to reform the social studies. Federally-funded projects emphasizing the social science disciplines and teacher training received much attention. The impact of these efforts often called the "New Social Studies" is only now being assessed. Whatever indirect effect these projects may have had on the social studies, there is little evidence of any immediate and direct effect in the nation's social studies classrooms.

Current Status

This section describes a number of patterns that characterize the field of social studies education, including current classroom practice in grades kindergarten through twelve. Typical subject matter content, objectives, teaching methods, and factors influencing the social studies curriculum are discussed.

I. Subject Matter/Content

A. In the United States, education is the responsibility of each of the fifty states. Within each state, although to varying degrees, legislation and guidelines for education are established. In approximately half the states, local school districts must choose their textbooks from a state approved list. In the remaining states, local school districts are free to choose the instructional materials they wish. In all states a fair amount of freedom exists at the local level to establish a curriculum appropriate to the school district's needs. One would, therefore, expect to see a great deal of diversity in the nature of social studies course offerings. Quite to the contrary, a recent study by the National Science Foundation found a great deal of uniformity in social studies course offerings across the nation.* The dominant curriculum pattern was as follows:

K Self, School, Community and Home

1 Families

2 Neighborhoods

3 Communities

4 State History; Geographic Regions

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*Taken from a summary of the Report of the 1977 National Survey of Science, Mathematics and Social Studies Education, Iris Weiss, U.S. Government Printing Office, Stock #: 038-000-00364-0. (Reported in News Exchange, Vol. 20, No. 5, December, 1978, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington, D. C.)

5 U.S. History

6 World Cultures; Western Hemisphere

7 World Geography or History

8 American History

9 Civics or World Cultures

10 World History

11 American History

12 American Government

This pattern has characterized the social studies curriculum for twenty-five years. It is influenced and maintained by commercially published textbook materials that are marketed nationally -- as well as state and local curriculum requirements which, in turn, are influenced by public opinion. However, the commonality of course titles does not necessarily mean uniformity in either teaching methods or specific content stressed.

B. Despite emphasis in recent social studies curriculum projects on both the teaching of social sciences and the teaching of controversial social issues, <u>little evidence of either is found in many social studies classrooms</u>.

C. During the 1970's a number of special interests sought to influence the social studies curriculum in theory as well as in practice. Examples of such special interests include those promoting multi-cultural education, consumer education, career education, energy education, law-related education, environmental education and global education. The approach taken by these advocates of new content

in the social studies was generally to infuse the existing curricular offerings with new content rather than to seek the addition of new courses.

II. Objectives

A. Teachers of the social studies in the United States are, as a whole, more concerned with socialization goals than they are with goals derived from the subject matter of the social studies. Socialization is often tied to observing community norms, being a "good student" and preparing for the next educational level. The Protestant work ethic and competitiveness are stressed. However, some teachers promote a contrastive view of socialization that emphasizes imagination, skepticism, individual expression, cheerfulness and cooperation. Many teachers try to do both.

B. While state and local education agencies may have on record a statement of goals and objectives, the profession of social studies education in the U.S. generally has not agreed on a single unified set of goals and objectives to guide classroom practice. Conflicting views abound. This condition undergirds many problems faced by the social studies field in the United States.

Teaching Methods

A. Lecture-discussion is the prevalent mode of social studies instruction at all grade levels. In spite of reform efforts that have in the 1960's and '70's emphasized student discovery and inquiry-oriented approaches, little evidence exists of widespread use of these newer practices. There is considerable evidence to support the belief

that social studies teachers continue to emphasize memorization and rote learning.

B. In a majority of American classrooms, social studies teaching revolves around the textbook. More often than not it is textbook knowledge, rather than the objectives of the school program set down in curriculum guides that is reflected in teacher-made tests designed for students in social studies classes. Use of supplementary materials, educational and/or commercial television, or community resources appears to be minimal. The textbook largely defines the nature of social studies education in most classrooms of the United States. Yet, while the central place of the textbook is clear, teachers rarely find the prescribed textbook wholly satisfactory for all students and often report these materials inappropriate for students with reading problems. The fact that course titles and topics are similar should not be taken as evidence that the content of these courses is uniform. To the extent that U.S. social studies teachers use different textbooks as well as newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, audio-visual and other materials to supplement, complement or replace their textbooks, variety exists in the content of these courses. Teachers are generally free to emphasize whatever content they choose.

Selected Issues Facing the Social Studies

A. The Back to Basics Movement. Recently, parents, in concert with some educators, have stressed the importance of reading, communication and computation above all other areas of the curriculum.

Social studies as well as science have been placed in lower priority. The schools response to this situation took the form of reduced expenditures for materials, elimination of social studies coordinators or supervisors and cutbacks in faculty and course offerings. While there is now some evidence that this narrow view of education is on the wane, existing social studies programs are still suffering from its wake.

B. Lack of articulation between Elementary and Secondary Social Studies Programs. Few school districts have a coordinated set of goals guiding the social studies program. Programs at the elementary, middle and senior high levels tend to be distinct and unconnected. Further, there is insufficient articulation between course offerings on specific grade levels.

C. New Thrusts in Social Studies. Several new emphases are making inroads into the social studies curriculum. Citizenship education is receiving increased attention since it is often seen as a major responsibility of the social studies program. In addition, law-related education, closely tied to citizenship, focuses on understanding of the U.S. legal system including constitutional rights. Yet another emphasis is found in global education which seeks to prepare students for life as citizens in a global age. It emphasizes interdependence, interconnections of nations, peoples and cultures, global problems and human rights. While other special emphases are in evidence, these three appear to be the most compelling.

The Importance of Textbooks in the Social Studies

The quality of instructional materials and the manner in which they are used affect teaching and learning in classrooms everywhere. In Japan and in the United States a variety of instructional materials are available to teachers of history, geography and the social studies. Nonetheless, as the following sources indicate, textbooks are likely to be the primary source of information for students enrolled in history, geography and social studies courses in both Japan and in the United States.

"In Japan, elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools are obligated by the School of Education Law to use textbooks for the education of pupils and students."[3] Clearly, the use of textbooks is required in the elementary and secondary schools in Japan. While such a mandate does not exist in the United States, recent studies demonstrate that textbooks also play a vital role in classroom instruction throughout the U.S.

"Teachers of science, mathematics and social studies... rely on textbooks as the basis for curriculum. Students spend their time processing the contents of the textbooks in some way: filling out worksheets, writing answers to questions at the end of chapters, or taking part in teacher-led recitations."[4]

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[3] Outline of Education in Japan, Science and International Affairs Bureau, Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, Japan, 1979.

[4] Taken from a summary of the Report of the 1977 National Survey of Science, Mathematics and Social Studies Education, Iris Weiss, U.S. Government Printing Office, Stock #: 038-000-00364-0. (Reported in News Exchange, Vol. 20, No. 5, December, 1978, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Washington, D. C.)

While the studies cited here show that textbooks play a major role in most classrooms in both Japan and the United States, they also conclude that the teacher plays the key role in classroom instruction. The manner in which the textbook is used, the extent to which students are required to read, and are held accountable for the materials in the textbooks, is largely up to the individual teacher.

Furthermore, the maps on the school-room wall, stimuli provided by the various media in the school, the home and community, informal contacts and interactions with fellow students or with teachers may well leave more lasting impressions than those derived from the textbooks.

Nonetheless, as long as textbooks largely set the agenda of topics to be studied, and as long as tests are based mainly on materials found in them, textbooks will continue to be an important factor in determining the focus of instruction in the social studies.

What students learn from their textbooks can affect efforts to improve Japan-United States relations. Accurate information about each other does not mean agreements can always be reached or that differences can easily be resolved; nevertheless, reliable knowledge of each other is essential for building better understanding and for guiding policy decisions.

Textbook Preparation, Selection and Distribution

The general purposes served by textbooks are similar in Japan and in the United States, but the manner in which textbooks are prepared is quite different. In Japan most textbooks used in schools must be approved by the Ministry of Education. In the United States, approval at the national

level is not necessary, but in some areas of the country, state approval is required. The differences in the manner in which textbooks, courses and curricula are developed and used are a reflection of, and may in some cases account for, some of the differences found in education in the two countries.

The key role played by the Ministry of Education in determining the course of study and the content of textbooks used in Japanese schools stands in sharp contrast to the U.S. system, where the preparation of curricula and the selection of the content of various courses is widely shared among a number of agencies and groups.

Textbooks in Japan

The current textbook system in Japan has been in effect since the mid-1960's. It has its roots in the authorization system, which was part of the postwar education reform movement. Under this system, textbooks for required courses are supplied free of charge to the students. These textbooks, according to School Education Law, have been authorized or copyrighted by the Ministry of Education.

When a textbook is submitted for authorization, the Minister of Education transmits its draft copy to groups of examiners and inspectors. Examiners are professional people employed by the Ministry for this purpose. Inspectors are full-time employees of the Ministry. Together they determine if the book adequately meets the criteria for authorization. The criteria include basic conditions for all textbooks -- agreement with policies of education and the objectives of the subject, and a fairness of treatment of political and religious matters. Other necessary conditions relative to a textbook's "content and its treatment" include: suitable level for the students,

conduciveness to good teaching, and appropriateness of organization. This system is effective in reducing factual errors and maintaining balance in the books.

For adoption purposes, each prefecture is divided into adoption areas. Textbook exhibitions are held during the adoption period to supplement the permanent displays at textbook centers around the country. This broad district selection system allows school teachers in the same district to conduct joint studies on the use of textbooks and associated education materials rather than confine themselves to working only with colleagues in their own school. Publishers are limited in their access to teachers and school boards during this time to ensure fairness in adoption decisions. With advice from the prefectural board, the Board of Education of each city and town ultimately adopts a textbook for each primary and lower secondary school subject. Any of the 500 regions may jointly select the same textbooks for use throughout the region. The textbooks for subcourses in the social studies of lower secondary schools are available in eight types, and in the upper secondary schools with a maximum of 20 types for world history and a minimum of nine for geography. There are comparatively fewer choices than in the United States.

In Japan, as in many parts of the United States, the students' textbooks are provided to them free of charge. The way of providing students with textbooks, however, differs in the two countries. In the U.S., textbooks are provided to the pupils at every grade, returned by them after the relevant course is over, and are then used by other pupils. Every three to five years the schools buy new textbooks. Although students use these textbooks,

ownership of the texts remains with the school district. In Japan, the textbooks are given to students without charge until they reach the lower secondary schools. Students keep them, take them home, and are not required to return them at the end of the year.

The free supply system of Japan is advantageous since every pupil owns his or her textbooks, feels more attached to them, and can keep them even after the course is completed. In contrast to American textbooks, which may undergo major revision every three to five years, Japanese textbooks are likely to be updated every three to five years and revised substantially every ten years. This keeps down the cost of textbooks in Japan, but in some cases this affects the "up-to-dateness" of the textbooks.

Textbooks in the United States

In the United States, there is no nationally agreed-upon course of study to guide publishers in selecting the content for textbooks they produce. The strongest influence in determining what goes into a textbook in the United States may well be the publishers' estimate of "What will sell?" To answer this, publishers examine recent marketing trends, analyze State Department of Education requirements or guidelines, as well as those of accrediting agencies and practices in larger local school systems. A number of factors seem to determine the popularity or saleability of textbooks. Among such factors are: the book's readability; the extent to which traditional, factual content is included; its provision for teaching basic skills; and the visual attractiveness of the textbook.

Because development and printing costs are high, it is not profitable for publishers to produce separate versions of a textbook for various regional

markets. Publishers generally settle for one or two books in a particular field, aimed at the largest audience possible. However, no one company dominates the commercial market in any one area of the social studies. It is unusual for a publisher to have more than 5-7% of the market in a particular social studies field, such as civics, American history or geography.

To assist in establishing fair and uniform marketing practices, the Association of American Publishers works to modify restrictive laws and regulations concerning use of instructional materials in the schools.

The selection of textbooks varies from state to state, with many states adopting lists of textbooks from which the local school systems make a choice. The publisher must be sensitive to many political and economic pressures in order to produce a textbook acceptable to a wide range of American schools.

In the course of this study, the sponsors and participants became more sensitive to these and other conditions which influence the nature of what is taught in classrooms in each nation. This study does not, however, explore the impact of textbook production on the content found in textbooks or on teaching practices in Japan or in the United States. Rather, this report focuses on the information about Japan and about the United States, and about relations between the two countries found in selected social studies textbooks used in each country. It includes general findings and recommendations as well as specific examples of items which the reviewers believe deserve further discussion.

The Review Process

In all, 14 Japanese and 28 United States social studies textbooks were exchanged and reviewed by specialists in the fields of history, geography, civics and social studies. Textbooks used in the following courses were reviewed:

Japan	United States*
Civics (politics and economics in senior schools)	United States History
Geography	World History
History (secondary schools)	Geography
World History (senior schools)	World Cultures
Japanese History (senior schools)	

The study included lower secondary and upper secondary school social studies textbooks in Japan and middle or junior high school and high school social studies textbooks in the United States.

The textbooks selected for review represent widely-used textbooks in both countries. Before being exchanged, each textbook was reviewed and the passages dealing with Japan and with the United States, or relations between the two countries, were identified. Some reviewers read other sections of the books assigned them, but they focused their primary attention on these identified passages.

In the United States the publishers were invited to participate in the study and to contribute review copies. Only one of [illegible] invited publishers declined.

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*It should be noted that in the opinion of the reviewers, most U.S. civics textbooks contain so little information about Japan or about world affairs in general that it was deemed inadvisable to include them in the study.

The next two sections provide a summary of the reviews of selected Japanese textbooks by U.S. reviewers in the following areas: geography, Japanese history, world history, civics, and politics and economics.

Following the review of Japanese textbooks is a section providing a summary of the reviews of U.S. textbooks by Japanese reviewers in each of the following areas: geography, U.S. history, world history and world areas or cultures.

The last section of the report provides a list of findings and a series of recommendations.

Japanese Geography Textbooks*

The reviewers characterized the geography textbooks as well-written, thoroughly researched and highly informative with many graphs and other visual presentations. The reviewers also noted a tendency of the writers to over-emphasize certain issues or institutions, and in some cases, to oversimplify explanations of complex social trends or developments.

For example, the Japanese geography textbooks stress the varied racial composition of the U.S. and the issue of racial relations. Despite a sensitivity to the complexity of this issue, Japanese textbooks consistently refer to the U.S. as part of the Anglo-American world, emphasize the country's Anglo-Saxon heritage, and describe U.S. citizens as Caucasian. Further, demographic maps of races are outdated and do not adequately reflect the

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*It should be noted that Japanese geography textbooks tend to emphasize physical phenomena. Culture, including racial and ethnic composition of the population and issues relating to these characteristics, are more likely to be covered in history and civics textbooks.

multi-ethnic composition of the U.S. The Anglo-American demographic map in one textbook shows the U.S. to be composed mostly of the "Germanic race," with "Negroes" in the southeast, Japanese and Chinese clinging to the Pacific coast, and three "Indian" blips in the West. The rest of Anglo-America, which is Canada, has a "Germanic" south, an Indian middle, an Eskimo north, and a narrow corridor of "Latin" peoples in Quebec. The text goes on to say that Anglo-America is defined "culturally" (jinbunteki ni) by the predominance of "primarily Anglo-Saxon peoples." (Saishin: Chiri B-Chishi, 1978; pg. 87) This is not totally inaccurate, but does give a distorted picture of the racial and ethnic composition of modern America. It does not take into account great strides made in recent years augmenting the previously White Anglo-Saxon Protestant-dominated American culture.

In addition, references such as: "In the U.S. as well, Asian immigrants were excluded at one time, and even now Black people's problems present great difficulties," abound. (Chiri-Teishoku Shoin, pg. 213) On the other hand, the authors generally fail to mention Japan's own experience with discrimination, directed especially against such foreign peoples as Koreans and people of Korean ancestry living in Japan.

When examining American cities, some textbooks resurrect the race phenomenon. Invariably the flight to the suburbs is followed by phrases such as "after people move away, blacks and Puerto Ricans move in; when that happens, the remaining white people, disliking this, leave for the suburbs. The new residents of the inner city experience racial discrimination in various aspects of social life, including employment and education. Since their income is low, their residential areas often become slums." (Shinpen: Atarashii shakai -- chiriteki bunya) By mixing several phenomena -- economics,

class, and race -- the text presents an image that distorts even when it is not untrue. Many textbooks continue to speak of blacks as living primarily in the South, only now wending their way to the great urban centers. Further, no mention is made of the civil rights upheaval of the '60's.

For the most part, America is portrayed as a "huge country" (taikoku) with enormous industrial strength and a high GNP. (Saishin: Chiri B-Chishi, pg. 232) Industry and trade are its hallmarks. Interestingly, recent polls (September, 1978) report that the generation of Japanese between the ages of 18 and 34, when asked what came to mind when they heard the word "America," replied "taikoku." The message of these textbooks seems to have taken root. While this is perhaps flattering, it paints an uneven picture and avoids controversy.

By playing down Japan's role in controversial world events, i.e., by casting Japan as an underdog and the U.S. as a free-wheeling power-broker, a certain ethnocentrism is revealed. One reviewer aptly stated: "I think the textbook is unduly reticent in mentioning Japan's extraordinary rise in the technology behind its products, the marvelous quality of Japanese exports. It has been this willingness to outdo other countries that has marked Japan's success. Everyone knows a bargain, and Japanese goods have been bargains. They have been extremely attractive to Americans because of their quality. I think the text, in a modest way, should celebrate this achievement." (Chugaku Shakaika: Chiri) Many texts choose to present a one-sided, one-way flow of power and influence out from Wall Street and Washington: "Japan imports much of its foodstuffs from America. Consequently, if American food exports drop, Japan's food supply is greatly influenced. In addition, if

import limitations are placed on Japanese products, Japan's industries lose a great number of sales. Business and bank capital are expanding into Japan. Thus, the influence of the American economy over the Japanese economy is very great." (Shinpen: Atarashii shakai -- chiriteki bunya) There is no mention here of traffic in the other direction -- of import limitations on American products, of Japan's impact on U.S. industry. Indeed, the student schooled in this text will never understand why the EEC (European Economic Community) is so "upset" with Japan. This vision of Japan as an underdog with little power, operating at a considerable disadvantage, is simply not consistent with current realities. (Chiri B)

In general, the geography textbooks present physical geography effectively, but fall short when they attempt to explain complex historical events in simplistic terms. Errors of oversimplification such as "English people went to North America as farm immigrants" (Chiri B) and "There were two types of immigrants to this country from Europe" (Chiri B), while not untrue, tend to distort.

A few problems occur in the physical geography portion of many textbooks with outdated information and misinformation. Some examples: In recent times Omaha has replaced Chicago as the center for butchering (Chugaku Shakaika: Chiri); the grain fields west of the Mississippi are not usually referred to as the "steppes" (Shinpen: Atarashii shakai -- Chiriteki bunya, pg. 234); on one map, the Columbia River is confused with the Snake River (Chiri). A more serious concern, however, is the choice of topics. For example, the authors of one text (Saishin: Chiri B-Chishi) have an obsessive interest in the TVA (Tennessee Valley Authority), which not only appears twice in

the chapter on the U.S. (pg. 51 and pg. 98, and map on pg. 58), but also in connection with Sino-Japanese relations, where it becomes a "model" of "regional development," pg. 203. The facts are in order -- the water level does drop from 200 to 180 meters before it reaches Knoxville -- but the emphasis is misleading.

Despite the problems outlined above, most of the textbooks are thoroughly researched and are well-written, with good graphic presentations of sophisticated information to support their main points. The points are, for the most part, logically reasoned and convincingly argued. The comments of one reviewer draws together the major concerns:

> On the whole the information presented in the book is both accurate and thorough. Of course, since the book was published, there have been some significant economic and geo-political changes in various parts of the world which make certain minor revisions mandatory. In addition, in a few instances, some brief background information is recommended for inclusion, in order to create a better context within which to understand the facts and the issues presented.
>
> Chiri, Teishoku Shoin

History (in Japan) -- Grades 7-9

Both of the textbooks reviewed in this category generally succeed in being well-balanced. Despite reservations, the U.S. reviewers agreed that the coverage and presentation outstripped American textbooks at the same level.

Nevertheless, some serious concerns were raised in the way the U.S. is treated. In one textbook, especially, while the facts are often accurate, their context is skewed by the political stance of the authors. Many of the things that America "did" -- which are uniformly true -- are said to have been done for reasons that are either oversimplified or interpretively still

in debate. For example, "in 1904 in order to expand (shinshutsu) into Asia and the Pacific, the U.S. began construction of the Panama Canal" (Chugaku shakai: rekishiteki bunya: p. 233). After the Russo-Japanese War, the U.S. tried both "to expand into Manchuria itself and also to exclude Japanese immigrants from America. And so Japan and America came into opposition, and England joined the U.S. to prevent Japan's expansion" (pg. 242, op. cit.) "England, in order to oppose America which now threatened its position, Japan, in order to raise its stature in East Asia, and America, in order to stop Japan and itself expand in East Asia," were all busily building battleships after the First World War, thus impoverishing their economies (pg. 266, op. cit.) "As the time for the Soviet Union to enter the war approached, America -- in order to preserve its superiority over the Russians in the postwar period -- dropped the Atomic Bomb on Hiroshima on August 6th, just as the Soviets were due to enter the war, then on Nagasaki on the ninth, and killed and wounded many citizens." (pg. 297, op. cit.) Statements of the sort quoted above seem to derive primarily from the sixties and express what in the U.S. would be viewed as revisionist history.

In addition, the U.S. reviewers found this book innovative, in that it teaches Japanese history from the viewpoint of Japan and its relationship to the world. This approach received the following favorable comments: "This global infusion makes Japanese history implicitly comparative and sets Japan in a larger context. This is unusual and impressive. The pedagogical assumptions here are commendable, even if the treatment of America is less than balanced." (Chugaku shakaii rekishiteki bunya)

The coverage alloted the U.S. in the other textbook only becomes problematical in the 20th Century. The account of 18th and 19th Century American history in the first part of the book is well-balanced and generally complete. It includes brief but interesting descriptions of the early settlers and their livelihood, their contact with and ignominious subjugation of the American Indians, and the problems which gave rise to the Revolutionary and Civil Wars. The partial translation of the Declaration of Independence presents a good summary of America's founding ideals (Atarashii Shakai).

Coverage of 20th Century American history, on the other hand, especially the treatment of the postwar years found in Chapter 10, is disappointing. There is a great concern for reciting and linking together historical "facts," great political and economic events like the onset of the Great Depression, the outbreak of World Wars I and II, the signing of treaties, etc., but little discussion of the human drama taking place behind these events. It is history shorn of its human and social content. One is left wondering just how such things as the Great Depression, the bombing of Pearl Harbor, or the technological revolution effected and altered the lives of the people who experienced them.

It should be noted that the treatment of Pearl Harbor is too brief. The actual devastation, the euphoria it brought to Japan, the galvanizing psychological purpose it gave to the U.S. and Franklin D. Roosevelt's use of it, etc., are ignored. This event convinced America it had to go to war, that Japanese could not be trusted and that those in the country must be sent to internment campus. More adequate coverage on this matter is warranted.

The coverage of 20th Century America appears especially biased when contrasted with that of the Soviet Union. While American involvement in Korea and Vietnam is clearly set forth, there is no similar discussion of the Soviet Union in Hungary (1956) or Czechoslovakia (1968). In addition, Stalinist excesses and Soviet involvement in Cuba are avoided. To the western reader this adds up to an ideological bias that indirectly states Japan's grievances against the U.S. but makes no attempt to do so vis-a-vis the Soviet Union.

It is perhaps the underlying assumptions of this textbook which cause the most difficulty. Issues and events in social history are viewed almost exclusively from the perspective of the nation-state. States are the principal actors; this is especially evident in Chapter 10, which deals with recent developments in international relations. There is nothing inherently wrong with this view; certain contemporary theories do contend that large-scale organizations, such as the state, develop their own needs and interests which they act to satisfy. One wonders, however, where people fit into this account, what part they play in the conduct of international relations. There is insufficient space devoted to the impact of changing socio-political conditions upon the lives of people, and how people in turn effect changes to which their governments are forced to respond. We are told, for example, which nations participated in a particular war, which won and which lost, what treaties were signed and how the outcome affected future events. But we learn nothing about the impact of that war upon the lives of the people who experienced it, such as the number of lives lost, the amount of crops and property that were destroyed, not to mention the ensuing problems of starvation, poverty, the task of trying to rebuild the

nations, etc.

In addition to the above concerns, reviewers did stress the need for appropriate citations on charts, photographs and other visuals. It is hoped that this situation will be quickly remedied not only for the purpose of acknowledging research done by authors but also to provide interested students with sources of further information. Also, terminology should be explained. Terms such as communism, socialism and capitalism need clarification.

In sum, the final assessment of this textbook is offered: "Despite the above, the coverage and presentation are better than the American versions I have seen thus far." (Atarashii Shakai).

Japanese History 10-12

Evaluating the historical treatment of the United States in Japanese textbooks poses unique problems of sensitivity and perspective. It is difficult to be critical about the treatment the United States receives without first pausing for reflection regarding similar problems in U.S. textbooks. Upon reflection, then, while both textbooks reviewed were acceptable, one in particular, contained glaring omissions that it is hoped might be remedied (Nihon shi).

Specifically, the problem alluded to above revolves around Japan's actions in the arena of foreign policy. The most prominent omissions include: 1) the treatment of the 21 Demands and Japan's action vis-a-vis China in 1915, 2) the Japanese military expedition to Siberia and the reasons cited for the Japanese delay in withdrawal, and 3) the absence of any mention of the role of the emperor in the first surrender. Perhaps most disappointing is the

treatment of the southward expansion of the Japanese and the attack on Pearl Harbor. Both avoid any mention of culpability as far as Japanese actions. Blame for Japan's actions seems to rest solely with "others." (Nihon shi) In addition, the textbook's treatment of the U.S. basically ends in the early 1970's. Therefore, crucial areas of Japanese-American interaction that merit inclusion in a volume of this sort, have been omitted.

The other textbook reviewed is more acceptable in its treatment of foreign policy issues (Nihon shi). It contains a good deal of detail and a sophisticated vocabulary. The coverage alloted historical events suggests good control of the materials. The Washington Naval Conference, especially, is more thoroughly discussed than in some American textbooks. The emergence of the U.S. and Japan as Pacific powers following World War I is placed in the context of the rise of Chinese nationalism and Soviet Russia. While the treatment is even-handed, it has a tendency to describe narrowly rather than to provoke general insights.

Thus, the above textbooks, while perhaps problematical, do have much to offer. It should be noted that the objections aired reflect the historical prism of Americans and to a certain extent an attempt to take an outsider's view. Objectivity in this realm is perhaps too much to hope for.

Japanese World History

It is perhaps endemic to all textbooks on "world history" that they should turn out to be superficial. There is simply too much to cover. In the main, Japanese world history textbooks are authoritative; what is covered is covered accurately. The historical mode tends to be traditional, high-

lighting primarily political events played out by empires and nation-states and the men who ran them. In the sections dealing with the U.S., events occur in truncated foreign policy (e.g., Monroe Doctrine, Cold War) and presidential pieces of time. The actions of these men, portrayed as rather altruistic, dominate the historical horizon. There is Jefferson who drafted the Declaration of Independence and, as third president, "developed democracy further" (Sekaishi, pg. 243); Jackson, who "came from the West, was popular with the lower classes, checked the power of the capitalists and contributed to the development of democracy"; Lincoln, a "humanist and ardent unionist; Theodore Roosevelt who established "the anti-trust law and halted the highhandedness of the capitalists and worked for social reform"; Wilson, "an idealist who enforced the anti-trust law and carried out various reforms which furthered the benefit of the people"; and FDR who receives the better part of two pages. The problem here is not of factual content but of presentation. The idea is conveyed that the presidents somehow did it all by themselves. Congress is only seriously considered in a footnote -- to explain why the U.S. did not join the League of Nations its President had created (pg. 295, op. cit.) With the exception of a few brief references to labor, the host of pressures, both foreign and domestic, that impinge upon presidential decision-making are never alluded to. The delicate balance between the executive, legislative and judicial branches, the keystone of our federal system, is ignored. The other textbook chooses to shift the emphasis of American government onto Congress. The resulting Congressional omnipotence finds Nixon being "dismissed by a vote of Congress in 1974" (Sekaishi). A glaring error in this textbook is: "In November of 1963 the unusual event of Kennedy's assassination took place. It is said

that the black people's problem lay behind that incident." (pg. 353, op. cit.) This controversial thesis is totally unsubstantiated in the ensuing narrative.

Along with politics, the treatment of U.S. culture raises some concern. One of the textbooks seems to be Euro-centered in its bias and devoid of social history in its approach. When culture is raised, in brief summaries of the 19th Century and contemporary times, America has three "romantics" (no "realists" or philosophers), three inventors, and three polar explorers in the last century and the Wright Brothers in the present one. (Sekaishi) What is disturbing here is not factual veracity but emphasis and distortion. Coverage emphasizes U.S. politics not culture. Indeed, the resume of American political history is impressively complete. This approach, however, does little to enhance the image of U.S. popular culture or to portray contemporary lifestyles in the U.S.

In the arena of recent history, one of the most disturbing findings was the inadequate treatment of the complex issues of U.S.-Japanese relations prior to Pearl Harbor. This is a very sensitive area. Yet, it is likely that the long-range interests of the students would be better served by a more detailed account. Likewise, Japan's role in 20th Century world events is minimized. Japan does not receive her due as a powerful actor on the 20th Century stage. Indeed, such a cursory treatment might lead some to view this backhanded treatment as a kind of ethnocentrism.

Both the ideology and terminology employed in the textbooks are areas of concern. In one textbook the authors take a definite ideological stance. While they certainly have a right to this, it would be better if the preference were clearly stated. Unfortunately, issues surrounding the interpretation

of complex historical events which remain controversial are never identified as such. Rather, a single and simple explanation is put before students without a hint of controversy. The same textbook employs rather ambitious if not ideologically loaded terminology, with terms such as bourgeois revolution, mercantilism, and imperialism receiving little explanation. Such terms can be highly emotive, especially if not properly defined (Sekaishi).

Despite the concerns outlined above, both of these textbooks have much to offer. "In many ways this is a good text. It is more sophisticated than its American counterparts. It is strong in treatment of revolutionary movements. It uses the "world" perspective to a greater extent than its American counterparts." (Sekaishi) Both of these textbooks attempt to be fair. At times, however, the balanced treatment of the U.S. becomes skewed. "This is a good, but limited, world history. The political emphasis is overwhelming, and there is no sign of the influence from other disciplines that has changed history-writing so much. As for the image of America, it is positive, even heroic, and resembles the old, but not the new -- American textbook version of U.S. History." (Sekaishi) Thus, at times the textbook is too flattering. By ignoring America's strife, the roseate picture of America, in the end, creates distortion.

Japanese Civics -- 9

On the whole, both Japanese Civics textbooks were very well received by the U.S. reviewers. Indeed, comments such as the following abound in the reviews: "This is a remarkably sophisticated book, clearly and informatively written with excellent graphs, illustrations, etc. I am amazed that it is for

lower secondary students. My university students would find it very difficult. The level of economic material, for example, is superb." (Atarashii Shakai: Kominteki Bunya)

In addition to comments such as the above, there are two equally prevalent criticisms. The first concerns the treatment of Japan and controversial issues; the second, the role of the U.S. One of the textbooks especially has a tendency to gloss over controversial issues. For example, inadequate space and treatment are given to the following issues of import: the Occupation, the Defense Treaty, especially its possible economic impact on Japan, the issue of ocean fishing rights, and conflicts over U.S./Japan trade policies. The role of the U.S. is sometimes understated. For example, the U.S. is not mentioned in relationship to Anti-trust laws. Further, even though the reforms of the Occupation are praised, as previously mentioned, there is no discussion of the Occupation period. (Atarashii Shakai: Kominteki Bunya). Nor is there any mention of the postwar U.S. role in supplying Japan with advanced technology or encouraging world-wide free trade, from which Japan has benefited so greatly.

Although the above concerns are serious, they appear infrequently and in general are not indicative of the scholarship which informs the textbook. This assessment was underscored by one reviewer, who after citing the aforementioned criticisms, rendered the following judgment: "A very sophisticated textbook by American standards, with an impressive basis in economics. Much more international in its treatment of issues than its American counterparts. Its major weaknesses lie in areas of avoidance of controversy, understatement of the U.S. role in certain events; and omission

of alternative viewpoints. However, it is much less at fault on these dimensions than a U.S. textbook at the same level would probably be." (Atarashii Shakai: Kominteki, Bunya)

The other textbook, with the exception of one or two omissions, was equally rated. The omissions concerned treatment of the ethical and moral implications of the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, and the absence of a discussion of international factors that were responsible for Japan's rapid postwar economic recovery. Beyond these concerns, however, the following comments were made: "Given the level for which the text is intended, the amount of coverage devoted to the U.S.A. is certainly acceptable. The textbook is also impressive in terms of its vocabulary, format and the concepts that it introduces, all of which encourage the student to think." (Gendai no shakai: Komin)

Japanese Politics and Economics -- 10-12

The reviewers found the material presented in these textbooks to be acceptable in most instances and admirable in some cases. In general, the facts are accurate and textual descriptions precise, relying on prose rather than graphs or charts. The quantitative material is recent, most of it from the mid-seventies. The material is seldom simplified. Occasionally, however, when complex social or political phenomena are discussed, only one explanation for the situation is included. The following two excerpts illustrate this problem: "In the United States individualism and the pioneer spirit are deeply rooted, and the government's participation in national life is passive. These are the reasons for deficiencies and disunity in the social security

system." (Shintei: Seiji-Keizai) Similarly, "After World War I great nation conflict took the form of conflict between the 'have' nations of England and the United States and the 'have not' nations of Germany, Italy and Japan." (Shintei: Seiji-Keizai, pg. 168) In both of these instances there are other explanations that one could and indeed should offer.

The treatment of the U.S. is, in the main, satisfactory. The U.S. appears in all the relevant places: as a model of the Presidential system (Shintei: Seiji-Keizai, pgs. 22-23), as the occupiers of Japan and drafters of its Constitution (pgs. 30-1, op. cit.), as a military ally and trading partner (pgs. 32-4, 174, op. cit.), as the source of international currency problems (pg. 128, op. cit.), as one-half of the East-West polarity (pgs. 186-8, op. cit.), as a party to the Vietnam War with the "complete failure of its military strategy" against the socialist bloc (pg. 187, op. cit.) and as initiating a rapprochement with China (pgs. 179, 196, op. cit.). Indeed, despite association of the U.S. with the old bipolar world (pg. 187, Shintei: Seiji-Keizai), balance-of-power policies (pg. 189, op. cit.), and failure in dealing with the nations of the Third World (pgs. 186-7, op. cit.), this is not the only negative model. For example, with a clear eye to all sides, the authors state: "After the Vietnam War, Japan began to replace the U.S. in offering large-scale economic aid to Southeast Asian countries like Thailand and Cambodia, which are strategically important in the East-West conflict. This kind of move brings to mind Japan's prewar Asian policy and will evoke the opposition of other nations." (pg. 201, op. cit.) Therefore, there is a notable lack of bias, with the portrayal of the U.S. remaining accurate and unemotional.

Both of the textbooks in this category were deemed exceedingly fair in their treatment of the U.S. as well as other topics. Again, the reviewers' accolades attest: "This is an impressive textbook in its breadth of coverage, sophistication of materials, and specificity of technical information. The discussion is at a high level throughout. A high school student who studies this textbook carefully will come out with a pretty good education in political economy, better, I would think, than in "social studies" as offered in the U.S." (Shintei: Seiji-Keizai)

Similar kudos underscore the relevance of the material and its treatment: "The textbook introduces the language of contemporary political and economic analysis. Schooled in this idiom, the student should be able to understand what he reads in the newspaper, for this is above all the vocabulary of current events." (Shintei: Seiji-Keizai)

In sum, then, these are admirable textbooks with an international focus.

Japanese Reviews of United States Textbooks

Summary

The 28 U.S. social studies textbooks were reviewed by both Japanese and U.S. reviewers. As a group, the Japanese reviewers gave higher ratings to the U.S. textbooks than did the U.S. reviewers. (Note: The material in the remainder of this section is based on the Japanese reviews only.) The Japanese reviewers rated the U.S. textbooks as excellent in their volume, colorful design and substantial descriptions. They cited the use of case studies, stories and questions to motivate students to learn as favorable elements in these U.S. textbooks.

Compared to earlier surveys of United States social studies textbooks conducted in Japan, the current textbooks are in general greatly improved. In most of these textbooks, the amount of material on Japan is not only greater, but more accurate and less biased than in the textbooks previously surveyed.

While the Japanese reviewers gave most of the U.S. textbooks used in this study an overall favorable rating, they did find numerous errors, omissions and considerable misunderstandings in many of these textbooks. They attributed these shortcomings largely to: (1) the lack of information about Japan and the insufficient use of experts on Japan in the United States; (2) the difficulty of understanding the substance of the Japanese culture; and (3) a failure to keep up with the rapid changes in every aspect of Japanese politics, economics and social life.

Most of the Japanese reviewers' critical comments center around the many factual errors, inadequate explanations of complex issues and topics, the uneven coverage of the history of Japanese-United States relations, the lack of emphasis on post World War II Japan, and the tendency to reinforce rather than challenge some of the stereotypes about the Japanese people. The very size of the U.S. textbooks raised questions by the Japanese reviewers regarding whether such a large amount of material is actually covered or learned by U.S. students and a concern for what might be neglected. They also felt that the case studies and human interest stories, while motivating students, were often misleading in the impressions they provide of life in Japan.

For summary purposes, the reviews are presented in three categories: Geography and World Cultures, U.S. History, and World History.

Geography and World Cultures

The U.S. textbooks are voluminous with color photos, maps and illustrations. The elaborate description of each country, including such factors as historical background, natural environment, racial composition, way of life and cultural and economic activities, found in the U.S. textbooks, is in sharp contrast to the more limited treatment in the Japanese textbooks. The U.S. textbooks suffer from the fact that such thick books are cumbersome. Lacking space, the Japanese textbooks cannot deviate from their brief descriptions of the topics or nations they treat. Nor do they contain much stimulating material to spark the student's desire to learn. However, the Japanese textbooks are much handier because they are thin. The extremes in size are reached by the textbooks of both nations in this regard. One way to address this discrepancy is to focus on a carefully selected topic. An example is the U.S. textbook, Our World and Its People that uses a case study titled "Yukawa, the Japanese City Worker." Allotting substantial coverage to topics of this kind correspondingly limits the coverage accorded the rest of Japan. Satisfactory guidance by the teachers should be given to be sure such case studies are effectively presented. Japanese students' desire to learn might be improved by using such case studies in Japanese textbooks. Careful consideration of personal experience, diaries and literary works, selected case studies, which are educationally effective and adaptable to the psychology of students, could be productively incorporated into Japanese textbooks.

The use of case studies is characteristic of the U.S. social studies textbooks but cannot be found in any of the Japanese textbooks. The Japanese reviewers appreciate that the case study stimulates the desire to

learn, but they recognize the method has some questionable features: an over-emphasis on the development of the story itself can lead to an over-simplified presentation of the content, or the main point of the story might be lost on the student, or the story may seem artificial and unappealing to the student. For instance, in People, Places and Change: A humble Japanese welder is introduced by the host at an exhibition of a new product using the laser beam. He appears on a TV show and is interviewed by a major newspaper reporter (questions vary from the labor issues to the inflation, environmental pollution, etc.); then he is called by his company's president and assigned to a high-ranking managerial position. This type of rapid advance cannot be realized in present day Japan. Nevertheless, such carefully designed stories may be used to enrich selected parts of the textbook.

The traditional Japanese way of life has long been seen as exotic and homogeneous by U.S. citizens. Most of the U.S. textbooks mention that this way of life has changed. It is still changing today and reflects a blending of the Orient and West in line with the nation's efforts toward modernization. The rapid Westernization and the turning away from tradition are surprises even for the Japanese. Most of the U.S. textbooks fail to chronicle this rapid change; their descriptions still include traditional prejudices. Even when the recent remarkable industrial growth of Japan is fully recognized, some U.S. textbooks still suggest that Japan's economic activities are mostly supported by agriculture. Their descriptions lag behind the drastic changes in the industrial structure of Japan. Indeed, some textbooks still insist that the growth of Japanese heavy industry is made possible by cheap labor.

Yet the average wage of industrial workers in Japan already exceeds that of Western Europe.

The U.S. textbooks present exaggerated descriptions about pollution in Japan as in This Our World, page 398, "Tokyo air is frequently so polluted that the police on traffic duty wear gas masks, despite the fact that numerous measures have been effectively taken, and the situation has considerably improved."

Many of the U.S. textbooks treat appropriate topics, but the explanations accompanying such topics are often less than adequate. The writers, who believe they know Japan quite well, sometimes excessively shorten the explanations, and mislead the students with respect to Japan. A simple example of their misunderstanding is the Japanese custom of taking off their shoes while in a house. It is not as simple as the following suggests: "The Japanese remove their shoes to avoid dirtying the straw mats that cover the floor" (World Geography Today, p. 295). This custom is attributable to the Japanese character that requires strict discrimination between the inside and the outside. Often mentioned in the U.S. textbooks is the notion that the Japanese believe in two different religions simultaneously, Shinto and Buddhism. In fact, Shinto seems for most of the Japanese to have the color of a folk belief, and is not regarded as a religion in the real sense. A stereotyped explanation follows for the well-known mystic smile of Japanese, as quoted in Our World and Its People, p. 431: "The fact that a Chinese or Japanese person smiles at you does not always mean that he or she is happy to see you. They smile because they have been taught to act that way meeting anyone, whether Friend or Foe." That this mystic smile should be mentioned

in such explanations is also an expression of a sense of shyness. It is essential that experts be consulted regarding these matters and that more practical data be obtained from the other nation, particularly in regard to sensitive areas related to ethnopsychologic research, etc. Under the theme of cultural geography, it is desirable that both nations pay due consideration to the above, that such defects are corrected and that in the future these changes reflect contemporary scholarship.

While enormous efforts have been made to enable Americans to understand Japan through their textbooks, it is regrettable to see conveyed in them total misunderstandings, false impressions, or out-of-date facts. These errors are more frequently found in the textbooks that describe recent changes in Japan's economic growth, or that seek to inform Americans of the customs or culture of the Japanese. The following explanations are misleading: "It has been called the Land of the Rising Sun. It was given this name because the Sun rises over Japan before it does over the Mainland of Asia" (Our World and Its People, p. 412); "They mean 'source' or 'origin' and 'sun.' Japan, lying east of northern China, was to the Chinese the land from which the sun came. It was sunrise land" (Culture Regions in the Eastern Hemisphere, p. 371). There is yet another interpretation that indicates why the Japanese refer to their country in this way: the ancient Japanese used this term when they saw the Sun rising over the horizon of the Pacific Ocean. Another false impression is conveyed by a picture of a Japanese housewife wearing a gorgeous silk kimono (People, Places and Change, p. 330).

Attempts are made by a number of the U.S. textbooks to help young U.S. citizens understand the characteristics of the Japanese language, from a philological point of view. It seems difficult to stimulate interest in this field in this way.

Simple errors in the figures or statistics can be readily corrected; more consideration, however, should be given to the differences in cultural traditions of the two nations, the Japanese ethnic psychology and the lack of time for mutual contacts. These basic problems cannot be solved unless the members of both nations have much closer contacts, exchange their views more actively and systematically, and provide each other with more data on a regular basis.

The American members at the Tokyo meeting commented that the Japanese textbooks of geography tend to overestimate the U.S. while they underestimate Japan. Mention of the USA as a big country in Japanese textbooks is "mere recognition of an objective fact" verified by various data, claim the Japanese. While the underestimation of Japan is serious, this inconsistency will be removed in the future when the Japanese select and describe themes for the new edition of geography textbooks. Without being boastful of the growth of Japan from a mere "chauvinistic" or "ethnocentric" viewpoint, the under-estimation of Japan can be corrected by describing objectively its growth and development, by paying greater attention to the ethnic character and technological advance of the Japanese, and by providing more accurate pictures of Japan's educational and cultural foundations. Greater stress will also need to be placed on the cultural and social conditions of modern Japan.

The activities of various nations and various races in the current world have geopolitical connotations, which must be considered or we shall fail to correctly illustrate the dynamic world. The U.S. textbooks give bold attention to the geopolitical dimensions of world affairs, an example of which is: "If the Soviet Union were able to control the oil produced in the Middle East, it might make Europe and Japan -- who need much of this oil -- more dependent upon the Soviet Union. This might weaken the connection of the USA, Japan and Estern Europe" (Our World and Its People, p. 327). Owing to the limited size of Japanese textbooks and other factors, geography textbooks tend to avoid such geopolitical descriptions. In this regard, there appeared to be uneven descriptions of the political activities of the USA and the USSR in the Japanese textbooks. The textbook authors are more inclined to state the problems arising in nearby countries more minutely and more sensitively. In Japan, it is considered better to avoid principally and politically-biased description, and therefore, it is better to describe the world-wide strategic activities of the USA and the USSR in a non-controversial manner.

Rich insertions of maps were common in the U.S. textbooks, but regretfully, frequent errors appear in the contents, and some maps need updating. The reviewers commented favorably on the use of recent photos and suggested that similar attention be paid to the maps.

Future U.S. textbooks should portray Japan as a nation and people having an identity that is different from other Asian nations. Japan should be presented comprehensively and accurately as a new and modern society.

There has been a tendency among U.S. textbook writers to treat Japan -- its nature, culture and way of life -- as if it were almost the same as other East Asian countries. There are a lot of common traits among the peoples of East Asian countries and the geography as well as the culture of Japan is related to those of Southeast Asia and the Pacific region, but there is also a Western influence upon Japan. All of these in the aggregate have contributed to the characteristics of present-day Japan.

World Cultures 6-7

As a whole the U.S. textbooks are edited to reflect the social studies that U.S. education is now pursuing. World Cultures textbooks, unlike those that are divided into geography and history, provide descriptions that are focused on Japanese history (and progress), and the culture of Japan.

Attempts to make easier what is most difficult for students in Western countries to understand about Japan have failed largely because the data used presents an out-of-date Japan. For example, in discussing the interior structure of a Japanese house, "Porches open on gardens and can be closed by sliding wooden walls at night. The houses are airy and pleasant. Inside, screens of bamboo and paper divide the house into rooms. The screens slide along grooves in the floor. They can be pushed aside to make one large room" (Our World Today, p. 392). Such is the description of the typical and traditional Japanese house. But houses in contemporary Japan often have Western-style independent rooms where sofas, beds and tables are placed. "Most houses in both cities and the country have electric light" (Exploring Our World, p. 358). This description leads students to think that electric lights have only recently come into widespread use in Japan. Actually,

electric lights were already used nation-wide more than 70 years ago. It should be noted that the number of electric washers, fans, radio receivers and TV sets possessed by Japanese households ranks as the world's first or second.

There are instances in the U.S. textbooks where students are asked questions which even the ordinary Japanese person would find difficult to answer. The questions on the "Noh-Play" (it is composed of plays displaying comical acts in the interval of play), or on whether or not the Japanese poems have rhymes (both questions are found in Understanding the World, pages 205 and 206) are very difficult. The Noh-plays are understood by and of interest to only a limited number of contemporary Japanese. They are not considered a popular form of entertainment.

The religion of the Japanese appears in U.S. textbooks as one of the most ambiguous aspects of Japanese culture: "There are two different religions of Shinto and Buddhism...." In fact, there are not as many true believers of Shrine Shinto as there are devotees of Buddhism, who are not always profoundly devoted to Buddhism. The gods cited in a description of Shrine Shinto are quite different from the Christian God. This kind of misunderstanding stems from the prewar years when the ultranationalists conceived of and promoted a nation-sponsored Shintoism, which regarded the emperor as God.

The Japanese custom of a New Year's Day visit to a shrine -- "I always make it a point to go to shrines the first thing on New Year's Day." (World Cultures, p. 8) -- does not so much represent a concern with Shinto as a religion as it does a folk belief, or a simple traditional event.

The "festivals" celebrated locally used to be one of the annual events of the shrines associated with Shintoism; but even in prewar times these festivals had lost much of their religious nature. Contemporary Japanese understand the festivals in such a way -- as an event -- and even consider them today as a kind of commercialism promoted by the merchants of nearby shopping centers.

The textbook, The Way People Live, begins with the arrival of an American couple in Japan, and it introduces shopping at a department store and the interview with a prime minister. On this occasion the couple questions the minister and he provides information on the housing and environmental pollution problems. This kind of attempt (which is seen in some of the textbooks) is interesting and it certainly attracts the interests of students. This kind of textbook is much longed for in Japan. Yet, unless the textbook of this type is skillfully edited, the story is likely to lead the children to misunderstand Japan.

Exaggerations and other mistakes are also found in the treatment of the natural environment of Japan. Japan is depicted as an earth-quake-ridden country, in reference to "2,000 to 3,000 earthquakes occurred in Japan...." (The frequency of microscopic earthquakes that can be sensed by the seismometer certainly exceeds 1,000 but the earthquakes that anyone can feel do not add up to 100 a year, even by including the nation-wide records.)

The "subtropical" climate of Japan is mentioned in many of the textbooks. Even those textbooks that provide descriptions of the seasonal winds and winter snows label the year-round climate of Japan as "sub-tropical."

Textbook writers should be aware that there are four distinct climates in Japan. The southwestern half of Japan is warm in the winter without frosts (average temperature of January is about 5°C), and the Nansei Islands (Okinawa Pref.) may be said to be subtropical. The winter lasts longer in the northern half of Japan, and the climate of Hokkaido must be understood as equal to that of New England of the U.S.A. Snows are heavy in the winter along the Japan Sea coast while it is drier and milder along the Pacific coast of Japan. This remarkable contrast affects the culture and activities of Japanese considerably. The descriptions of Japan's climatic conditions found in U.S. textbooks are quite equivocal. Depicting Japan as subtropical may have arisen as a result of a Western misunderstanding concerning rice -- a tropical grain which is grown everywhere in Japan. Therefore, this nation is presumed to be under the subtropical climate.

Another misconception has to do with Japan's sources of energy. It is correct to mention that Japan is a rainy and mountainous country; it is misleading to indicate that electric power is supplied by the hydroelectric power stations, and that the energy of Japan is fed by water. As far as power generation, the ratio of hydraulic and thermal power generation in the prewar time ranged from 8 to 2 to 7 to 3. This proportion is inverted now, and the total amount of power generation exceeds 100 times the prewar amount. Japan's main source of energy was coal in prewar times; charcoal and firewoods were used to heat homes. At present, 80% or more of Japan's total national energy is supplied by petroleum. Charcoal and firewood are scarcely used anymore to heat homes. The explanation -- "Firewood and charcoal are used for cooking and heating" (Our World, p. 391) is based on outdated data and no longer pertains to the Japan of today.

Numerous descriptions of the modern history of Japan or "Progress of Japan" are found in U.S. textbooks. Errors in fact are few, and these will be cited in the section on "History" in this paper.

U.S. History

Reviews of eight U.S. history textbooks are reported here, viz., four volumes for 7th to 9th grades and four volumes for 10th to 12th grades.

The descriptions of Japan in U.S. history are focused on topics chosen not by their significance in the history of Japan, but by their importance to the USA. Even the Meiji Restoration, which cannot be overlooked in the survey of Japanese history, is not mentioned directly in the U.S. textbooks. The first event that is treated in most of the U.S. textbooks is the "opening" of Japan to the world triggered by the visit of Commodore Perry. As a consequence, some of the Japanese reviewers complained of inadequate historical recognition of Japan. While this may be remedied by later study of world history or world areas, the fact is that some students leave school without taking a course in world history or world areas. Although the manner or detail of their accounts varies, what seems common to them is Commodore Perry, who is described in such a way as having brought to the then uncivilized Japan the advanced Western culture. He is portrayed as the "Apostle of Culture," who opened Japan to the Western world. This is supported by accounts like, "Before Perry, people in Japan lived like those in Europe in the Middle Ages" (This is America's Story, p. 611). Another textbook introduces Perry "as the one who donated to Japan the gifts of modern industry such as models of the steam locomotive and telegraph equipment" (A People and a Nation, pages 283 and 549). What most U.S.

textbooks fail to mention is the important fact, reported by Perry, that this "Apostle of Culture" attended the diplomatic negotiations with Japanese officials with a coercive attitude fully prepared to resort to arms if the Japanese officials rejected his request to open the country. A considerable amount of space is given to the Russo-Japanese War in these textbooks. Within the half century from Perry to the Russo-Japanese War, Japan, through the Meiji Restoration, achieved rapid and dramatic modernization in such areas as politics, education, business and industry, social life, culture, etc. This rapid growth of Japan is nowhere illustrated in these textbooks. Moreover, there is inadequate description of the causes of the Russo-Japanese War and little reference to the international relations in Eastern Asia after the Sino-Japanese War, including the invasions of China by the major powerful nations, occupation of Manchuria by Russia, and the subsequent extension of her influence in the direction of Korea. Some textbooks give the impression that the Russo-Japanese War was the direct result of Japanese expansionism, as seen in the statement, "But in 1904 Japan launched a sudden and decisive attack against Russia" (A People and A Nation, p. 549).

The U.S. textbooks, in dealing with the Russo-Japanese War, tend to give most attention to the efforts of President Theodore Roosevelt to bring about the peace negotiations between the two conflicting nations. Roosevelt was awarded the Nobel Prize because he "secured the peace in Asia by maintaining the balance of power (between Japan and Russia)" (People and Our Country, pages 541-542).

Japanese immigration to the U.S. is an area that most of the Japanese history textbooks do not touch upon. This is a topic that has been taken up only within the past 10 years. More pages are given to this subject in the

U.S. textbooks than in the Japanese textbooks, and their treatment is fair. U.S. racial prejudice toward Japanese immigrants, unfair discrimination in their treatment or the movement for exclusion of Japanese are not omitted. This attitude of U.S. textbooks indicates that the American people, as a racially composite nation, have a keen interest in the racial problems. (We the People, pages 352, 354, 355, pages 430 to 440; A People and A Nation, p. 550, et. al.) The topics of the isolation of Japanese-Americans during World War II is totally omitted from the Japanese textbooks; yet the U.S. textbooks in most cases criticize its injustice and unfairness as part of the minor race problems in the States. It can be highly evaluated in this sense; a textbook mentions "The treatment of Japanese-Americans received during the War was clearly uncalled for" (The Free and The Brave, p. 655), or "one of the sorriest spectacles of the times" (People and Our Country, p. 644), relating to the compulsory internment camps.

The most questionable accounts of Japan-USA relations are those of the Japanese expansion into China and southeast Asia after 1930 and of the Japan-USA conflict of interest prior to Pearl Harbor. In most U.S. textbooks the Japanese invasion of China, violating the 9-nation treaty after the Manchurian Incident in 1931 and her military intrusion into French Indochina in 1940 and 1941 are the main topics of Japan-USA relations. The incident of the U.S. gunboat, Panay, sunk in 1937, is also included in many textbooks. The textbooks treat Japan as the invader. Not sufficiently explained by the writers of U.S. textbooks are a series of economic retaliations taken by the U.S. against Japan, the severe impact of the U.S. cancelling the Japan-USA trade and navigation treaty in July, 1939, the freezing of Japanese assets in the USA and the prohibition of petroleum export to Japan in 1941. The

prohibition of petroleum export to Japan made the Japanese Navy, which had previously had a passive attitude, decide to go to war against the U.S.A. This should be given more profound and detailed explanation in the textbooks. While there can be no denying that there was a surprise attack, events which brought the U.S. into war with Japan need to be understood clearly by U.S. students, and this can only be achieved through substantial description of the factual processes and the standpoints of both nations up to the time war broke out.

Events leading up to the attack on Pearl Harbor are referred to only slightly by writers of the U.S. textbooks. The U.S. writers' way of picking up topics is quite unique. One textbook gives us a wonderful impression by an illustration of the life of an American citizen early in the morning of December 7th, 1941 (History of A Free People, p. 672). It seems that most of the U.S. textbooks simply mention the atomic bombs, dropped over Hiroshima and Nagasaki, by citing the formal explanation of the bombing, as given by the U.S. government. The bombing of Nagasaki is totally ignored by some textbooks (The Free and The Brave, p. 661; We the People, p. 472). The damages caused by the atomic bombs are not correctly explained, and the number of casualties, dead and wounded, is extremely small in most U.S. textbooks. We presume they refer to the statistics made by poor surveys conducted immediately after the bombings. We suggest that the more accurate data can be obtained from the Japanese council. Delicacy should be given to the accounts of the nuclear bombs. There should be no hiding the fact that most of the casualties were noncombatant civilians, and that deaths from radiation sickness still occur among victims of the bombing.

Most of the U.S. textbooks fail to mention postwar Japan. The exceptions are A People and a Nation (p. 733) and History of A Free People, both of which touch on the American military occupation; while We the People (p. 483) carries an account of the economic prosperity of postwar Japan.

More important than prewar relations between the U.S. and Japan are the relations between the two nations after World War II. Omission of this important topic from most of the textbooks seems to be a critical defect in them. We sincerely hope that needed corrections and additions can be made in the future.

World History

When compared with the descriptions of Japan and U.S.-Japan relations in the other U.S. textbooks, the Japanese council noted improvement in the descriptions of Japan in the world history textbooks reviewed in this study. There is better understanding of Japan evidenced in these textbooks. It is hard to find any description that might be considered perverted with extreme bias, particularly in regards to racial prejudice. Generally speaking, their descriptions of Japan can be evaluated as fair. A U.S. textbook describes the steps taken by Japan up to the outbreak of the Pacific War by presenting the nation's stand in international relations, political antagonism within the nation, assertions exchanged between Japan and the U.S. in various negotiations and other substantial facts from different viewpoints (People and Our World, p. 597).

In addition to historical descriptions of Japan's cultural traditions, most of the world history textbooks touch upon Japan's development as a modern

nation and even her profile when emerging into international society. One textbook omits entirely any description of Japan prior to the modern age (A Global History).

In the selection of topics for a description of the cultural and historical traditions of Japan, no one can deny that the writers of these textbooks tend to play up the exoticism of the East. Shintoism, Zen, Noh plays, the art of flower arrangements and the tea ceremony tend to be over-emphasized. This tendency presents a problem of balance in the descriptions. One textbook uses most of its description of Buddhism in an explanation of Zen (The Human Expression, p. 220). In another textbook three religious sects are taken up, including the Zen sect, while describing various religious sects which existed in Feudalistic Japan; left unmentioned is the impact of the Jodo Shinshu sect (Ikkoshu) upon the Japanese and their history through diffusion of the philosophy of Pure Land or the uprising of Ikkoshu sectarians (People and Civilizations: A World History, p. 228). The suicide of Yukio Mishima, introduced in the first page of History and Life, stresses the incident as stemming from the cultural tradition of Japan. Such emphasis serves to impress upon the students the peculiarity of Japanese in their thinking and behavior; and they hardly seem appropriate for any kind of textbook.

Such misrepresentation is further evidenced in one of the textbooks (The Human Expression, p. 228) that cites only two modern-day writers, Yasunari Kawabata and Yukio Mishima, while there are numerous others: Soseki Natsume, Ohgai Mori, Toson Shimazaki, to name but a few of world renown.

In their descriptions of modern Japan, many of the U.S. textbooks place emphasis on the progress of the military in Japan, particularly in the years following the Meiji Restoration, during the Russo-Japanese War, the World War I era, Japan's invasion of China, and the Pacific War.

The international relations of modern Japan are mentioned in detail in most of the U.S. textbooks. A representative description is found in A Global History, pages 112-113, which quotes Premier Nehru's memoir, "Toward Freedom," and asserts the great impact of Japanese victory in the Russo-Japanese War on Asian nationalism and points out the significance of the event in world history. Some textbooks, however, stress the similarity between the surprise attack of Japan that opened the Russo-Japanese War and that made at Pearl Harbor (History and Life, p. 600; A Global History, p. 112). This description, however, fails to note that the military action in 1904 was taken by Japan only after the official severance of diplomatic relations.

The textbook descriptions of the domestic issues of modern Japan are generally too simple and too short. They also generally fail to consider the political developments of the Meiji and Taisho eras (i.e., the establishment of parliamentary institutions and the advancement of party politics), and Japan's industrial and social development of those eras.

Similarly, most U.S. textbooks carry very meager accounts of post-war Japan -- almost nothing on the period following the U.S. occupation. Considering the importance of modern history, Japanese reviewers have to be critical.

Most of the world history textbooks allocate too few pages to Japan to provide adequate descriptions. The omission of major events and the over-simplification or fragmentary description makes it difficult for the U.S. students to properly understand the flow of Japanese history. Simple errors and inaccurate or incomplete expressions of individual facts are often found in U.S. textbooks. More frequent use of experts -- Japanologists -- might well correct such errors and eliminate inaccuracies in future editions of these textbooks.

To summarize, there is adequate coverage of Japan in many of the U.S. textbooks examined in this study, but in their efforts to cover too much material in too short a space, U.S. textbook writers often oversimplify the material they cover. While bias was considered to be minimal, there remains a thread running through many of the books that implies that as a result of a benevolent American European influence, Japan has, at last, managed to join the Western world of the Twentieth Century.

General Findings*

The textbooks reviewed in this study are different not only in grade level and disciplines or subject-matter, but also in regard to breadth of coverage, level of sophistication, specificity of technical information, and in orientation and ideology. The general findings, therefore, do not necessarily apply to all textbooks, nor do they apply to the same extent to each text reviewed.

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*The reviewers found much to be commended in many of the textbooks. They also found many areas wherein they believe improvements could be made. Since the purpose of this study is to seek improvements in social studies textbooks, this report focuses on areas wherein improvements might be made.

1. The Japanese textbooks generally present more complex vocabulary and substance than the United States textbooks.
2. Neither the Japanese nor the United States textbooks adequately indicate sources (including dates) used in writing the textbooks.
3. The Pacific War, especially the background and issues leading up to it, is not dealt with adequately in either the Japan or the United States textbooks. The United States textbooks tend to treat it as a simple case of Japanese aggression. The Japanese textbooks provide a more complicated view, but do not deal directly with the Japanese responsibility for the Pacific War.
4. There is an over-emphasis in the textbooks in both countries on certain traits, e.g., in the United States textbooks, the Japanese are frequently characterized as adaptive and energetic; in the Japan textbooks, United States citizens are frequently individualistic and materialistic. Certain descriptions, which are based on traditional prejudices, still appear in both nations' textbooks.
5. The moral and ethical implications of the atomic bombs dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in World War II are not sufficiently expressed in most of the textbooks of both nations. In fact, the topic receives only brief treatment.
6. The Japan textbooks provide more data than do the United States textbooks.
7. The Japan textbooks present a greater range of ideological approaches than do the United States textbooks.

8. Each country's own history books are generally more ethnocentric than are their respective world history and geography textbooks.
9. There is a marked difference in pedagogy in the textbooks reviewed. The United States textbooks reflect a greater variety of pedagogy than do the Japanese textbooks. For example, many United States textbooks provide case studies, inquiry exercises, reflective thinking and other activities, methods and strategies popular in "The New Social Studies."
10. There is a general tendency in both nations' textbooks to underestimate past conflicts and undesirable aspects of history. However, there are increasing efforts to remedy this situation, although the effort is not yet sufficient in either country.
11. The conventional format of textbooks in each country has an effect upon both the quality and quantity of materials presented. The Japanese textbooks are handy and compact, and the terms used in them are simple and descriptions are brief. On the other hand, the U.S. textbooks are large and contain more descriptive materials.
12. The treatment of Japan and of the United States in each other's textbooks is generally accurate, but certain descriptions, which are based on stereotypes and inaccuracies, still appear in both nations' textbooks.

Specific Findings: Japan Textbooks

1. The Japanese textbooks seem unbalanced in the sense that their emphasis on economic and political developments tends to overshadow their emphasis on social change and cultural developments.
2. In many of the Japanese textbooks, the use of a simplified narrative style tends to flatten out the peaks and valleys of social change, hiding and blurring the turmoil, conflict and cooperative efforts which characterize much of human experience.
3. In the majority of the Japanese textbooks, nations as such tend to be emphasized more than other actors in human affairs -- e.g., individuals, corporations, social groups, etc.
4. In the treatment of Japan-U.S. relations, Japan is often treated as being passive or acted upon rather than as an active agent pursuing its own goals and purposes. This is especially true in the treatment of 20th Century Japan.

Specific Findings: U.S. Textbooks

1. The treatment of Japan in the U.S. textbooks seems to be unbiased except for some exaggerations. Yet some of them are too exotic.
2. Most of the U.S. history textbooks put too much emphasis on some specific periods of Japanese history, neglecting the continuity of Japanese history such as the modernization process of Japan and Japanese ancient culture.

3. Some of the U.S. textbooks omit basic information about Japanese politics, economics and geography, although in general there are efforts to acquaint students with Japanese culture and society.
4. While the U.S. textbooks are by and large accurate in basic facts, there are many mistaken inferences, interpretations and descriptions of Japanese life.

Recommendations

A major purpose of this study was to prepare a list of recommendations designed to encourage improvements in social studies textbooks in Japan and in the United States, especially in regard to the treatment each gives the other and the relations between the two countries in their respective textbooks. The recommendations follow.

General

1. In the preparation of textbooks, both countries should pay more attention to scholarship. It is strongly recommended that in the preparation of textbooks greater use be made of subject matter specialists in collaboration with writers.
2. Controversial issues and personalities should not be glossed over or muted in efforts to present a single version of the past.
3. More attention should be given in the social studies textbooks of both nations to differing interpretations and points of view, especially in regard to controversial issues and areas of conflict between the United States and Japan. When dealing with such situations, it is important that the background, causes and

consequences of the conflicts be presented in detail sufficient to afford students the opportunity to grasp the complexity of events and to appreciate the fact that divergent views exist with regard to such areas of conflicts.

4. Recent social, political and economic events in both countries as they affect U.S.-Japan relations should receive more attention. The tensions created by intensified economic competition and the potential benefits of increased cooperation should be given more attention.
5. Special attention should be paid to the inclusion of up-to-date materials.
6. Multi-causation and the multifaceted nature of international problems and issues should receive more attention.
7. Descriptions of the role of nations in world affairs should include presentations involving other significant participants in world affairs -- individuals, corporations, social groups.
8. Cultural and artistic developments in both nations should be treated more fully.
9. Sources of data, especially dates, should be identified in all social studies textbooks.

United States

1. U.S. textbooks should be made more compact; content should be more concise.
2. U.S. textbooks in general and those in United States history, in particular, should provide more complete treatment of the

history of Japan and of the relations between Japan and the United States. The current tendency is to focus on only four or five events, most of which involve United States intervention in Japanese affairs. Greater attention should be given to the contemporary period and to current relationships between the two countries.

3. Although Japan has much in common with other Asian countries, it should be treated as a separate and distinctively different country.

4. Some topics and events should be treated in a larger context; too often world events are presented only as they relate to the United States, thus reinforcing an American-centered view of the world.

5. Restricted use should be made of the monolithic term "Japanese." Individuals, groups and sectors of the population in Japan should be acknowledged and included as part of the textbook whenever appropriate.

6. The exaggerated image of Japanese militarism presented in U.S. textbooks -- extending from the feudal period to the present -- needs to be moderated by placing it in a larger perspective which includes more emphasis on other aspects of Japanese culture and traditions.

7. Carefully drawn case studies emphasizing common and contemporary aspects of Japanese culture should replace case studies which emphasize the traditional or the exotic.

Japan:

1. Japanese textbooks should be expanded to provide students an opportunity for a fuller understanding of American culture.
2. Additional incentives should be provided to encourage the publication of more unique and innovative textbooks in Japan.
3. The Japanese textbooks should discontinue the practice of understating the nation's role in international affairs generally and in international economic affairs in particular.
4. Japanese textbooks should treat artistic and cultural developments more fully; the current emphasis is largely on economic and political developments.
5. Japanese textbooks should not portray the U.S. as dominantly Anglo-Saxon and need to present the full range of cultural diversity as its exists in the U.S.
6. Japanese textbooks should include such significant U.S. developments as the civil rights movement of the '60's, the "sunbelt"* phenomenon of the '70's, and the impact of Japan on the U.S. and world economies.
7. Japanese textbooks should provide more complete explanations of U.S. historical and contemporary developments.

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*The shift of population and industry to the southern part of the U.S.

Other:

It is recommended that efforts be made to jointly undertake:

1. A study of primary school textbooks and concomitantly a study of images and attitudes Japanese and American youth have of each other.
2. The preparation of materials for teachers based upon the reviews of textbooks.
3. A study of the treatment of global problems in Japan and in U.S. textbooks -- e.g., environment, energy and pollution.
4. A follow-up study within 5 years to determine the extent to which recommendations have been implemented.
5. Increased communication between Japanese and American scholars and educators involved in the development, production and use of textbooks is encouraged in order to reduce misunderstandings, misconceptions and prejudice in textbooks in each country.
6. Both nations should continue and expand contacts between educators, scholars and others involved in planning, preparing and using textbooks. Exchanges of textbooks and other instructional materials as well as information about curriculum development and teaching methods should be encouraged.

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Kolevzon	Afro-Asian World	Allyn and Bacon
Kolevzon and Heine	Our World and Its People	
Stavrianos, et. al.	A Global History	
Welty	The Human Expression	Harper and Row
Ver Steeg and Hofstadter	A People and a Nation	
Berry, Ford and Carls	People, Places and Change	Holt, Rinehart and Winston
Israel, Johnson and Wood	World Geography Today	
Kownslar and Smart	People and Our World	
Risjord and Haywoode	People and Our Country	
Preston, Tottle, Murphy and Flannery	Cultural Regions of the Eastern Hemisphere	D. C. Heath
Bidna, Greenberg and Spitz	We the People	
King, et. al.	Understanding the World	Laidlaw Brothers
Linden, Wassenich, Brink and Jones	A History of Our American Republic	
Tiegs, Adams and Dawson	Our World	Ginn and Company
Thompson and Hedberg	People and Civilizations: A World History	
Branson	The Way People Live	Houghton Mifflin Company
Wilder, Ludlum and Brown	This Is America's Story	
Yohe, Cahill, Gross, and Gritzner	Exploring Our World: Eastern Hemisphere	Follett
Jones and Murphy	Geography and World Affairs	Rand McNally and Company
Graff	The Free and the Brave	
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AUTHOR	TITLE	PUBLISHER
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Danzer and Larson	Land and People	
Wallbank, Shrier, Maier-Weaver and Gutierrez	History and Life: The World and Its People	
O'Hern	This Is Our World	Silver Burdett Publishing Company
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APPENDIX C

REVIEW GUIDELINES

1. Accuracy
   - (a) Factual information
   - (b) Scholarship
   - (c) Sources
2. Coverage
   - (a) Balance
   - (b) Emphasis
   - (c) Up-to-date treatment
   - (d) Significant omissions
   - (e) Amount of space
3. Presentation
   - (a) Underlying assumptions
   - (b) Emotional language
   - (c) Ethnocentric Bias
4. Summary Comments

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